DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 331 760 SO 021 274

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TITLE Towards a New Concept of Educational Planning, and How To Improve It In Practice.

SPONS AGENCY United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France). Div. of Educational Policy and Planning.

REPORT NO ED-90/CONF.401/COL.18; ED-90/CPA/401/WD/7

PUB DATE 90

NOTE 34p.; Paper presented at the UNESCO International Congress "Planning and Management of Educational Development," (March 26-30, 1990, Mexico City, Mexico).

AVAILABLE FROM United Nations Educational, Scientific and cultural Organization, 7, Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France.

PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.

DESCRIPTORS Basic Skills; Developed Nations; Developing Nations; *Educational Administration; *Educational Planning; Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Global Approach; Human Resources; *International Education; Literacy Education; World Problems

IDENTIFIERS UNESCO

ABSTRACT

The first section of this paper, focusing on conceptions and applications of educational planning, seeks to identify problems that affect the educational efforts of the nations of the world. Problems in economic and financial, socio-political, and cultural veins are discussed. Section 2 examines the particular educational problems generally faced around the world; these include literacy, basic education, and the training of human resources. The third section discusses past developments and the present crisis in educational planning. The fourth and last section considers theoretical and practical challenges to educational planning, administration, management, and evaluation in the future. A lengthy bibliography is included. (DB)

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L.G. BENAVIDES ILIZALITURR
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SO 021 274

MEXICO
26-30 MARCH 1990

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TOWARDS A NEW CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING, AND HOW TO IMPROVE IT IN PRACTICE

International Congress
'Planning and Management
of Educational Development'
(Mexico City, 26-30 March 1990)

Luis G. Benavides I.
Vicente Arredondo R.
CREFAL

Pátzcuaro, Michoacán, Mexico, 1990

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INTRODUCTION

It is impossible to gauge the importance, and above all to determine the role of educational planning, without viewing it against the background of educational problems as a whole, for the simple reason that educational planning is inherent in the provision of education, which is its subject of study and which it aims to serve.

At the same time, education is necessarily affected by and reflects what goes on in a both broader and deeper context, namely the world economic, socio-political and cultural situation at the international, regional and national levels. As we are well aware, this situation is a constantly shifting one, a trend to be found in all periods of history but which has today become unprecedently rapid and far-reaching. One might even say that current changes are so rapid, and impinge upon so many areas of public and private life, that though they are now a commonplace in our lives they always take us by surprise.

These changes are so overwhelming that we are frequently unable to keep up with them and still less to grasp their significance and implications. Similarly it is very difficult to foresee their repercussions, both for collective development and for the organization of individual and family life. Often we have no breaking space for analysis, reflection and evaluation which would at least indicate whether we are victims or beneficiaries of changes which are as numerous as they are sweeping - even if in theory they are supposed to promote 'progress' in the world and in individual countries...

As in a densely intricate network of correlations, everything affects everything else. Each nation's progress depends to a large extent on what is happening throughout the world; economic and political factors have a direct impact on a society and affect its educational and cultural situation, including of course the areas we define as the planning, management and administration of educational resources and services.

We therefore run the risk of being snowed under with all these changes which we are at a loss to study or explain in a reasonably systematic way. While it may not be difficult to list one after the other all the transformations taking place around us (internationally, regionally and nationally), it is not easy to see the causal connection between them or to determine which have priority for consideration as problems in respect of which a number of alternative solutions should be envisaged. There are countless examples of the difficulty of building up a coherent overall picture of all the elements that come into play in the inevitably complex web of educational realities, with their resulting implications at the planning stage.

It may seem that in emphasizing the difficulties of the subject we seek to enhance the value of this paper or to apologize in advance for its eventual shortcomings, but this is not the case. We are simply all too aware of the complex reality of the situation facing us, both in itself and as a subject for description. We have therefore decided to present a study which, although by no means exhaustive, is sufficiently comprehensive, structured and coherent to stimulate a few days' fruitful reflection.

First and foremost, we have attained the vital general objective laid down for the International Congress on 'Planning and Management of Educational Development' (to be held in Mexico City from 26 to 30 March 1990, in conformity with the relevant resolution adopted by the General Conference of Unesco at its twenty-fourth session). This objective is: 'To review the

evolution of educational planning and management since the International Conference on Educational Planning (Paris, 1968) and identify new approaches and trends in this field'.

With this in mind, and following other guidelines and suggestions related to the theme of this International Congress, we shall proceed in this document on the basic lines of moving from the global to the general, and from the general to the particular. By 'global' we mean the world economic, socio-political and cultural context and, mutatis mutandis, that of most countries, i.e. the overall context. By 'general' we mean the relatively broad framework of educational problems, above all the three aspects of literacy, basic education and the training of human resources. By 'particular' we mean the specific fields usually covered by educational planning and management activities.

While following these lines we shall also try to be selective. From among the many varied components of the global context we shall select the aspects that have the most direct or significant impact on educational issues. Here we shall emphasize the areas in which specific planning and management activities can and should be developed with a view to improving performance in the three main functions of defining a framework within which objectives may be established and priorities determined, directing educational policies, and making the best use of resources.

It may well be considered that this document gives more weight to educational planning from a macro-social viewpoint than to specific aspects of internal administrative efficiency and management of formal national education systems. Without underestimating the importance of seeking policies, criteria, techniques and procedures to enable the administrators of education systems to carry out their task more effectively, we believe that there is a wide consensus that at the moment the most acute problem arises from the confusion about the nature, purpose and relevance of education.

Without the necessary clarification of the whys and wherefores of education in each country's specific circumstances, it would be difficult to determine exactly what changes are needed in the administration and management of a national education system. At all events, it seems that the first priority is to generate and administer the educational ideas, concepts, approaches and educational hypotheses required for the world of today; and to put them into effect in such a way that at the same time they result in the proper administration of the human, material and financial resources of the desired type of education system.

Other self-imposed limitations adopted for this study have included setting aside topics relating to regional or local situations which might be of interest but which will be dealt with in other papers presented at the Congress. We have also confined ourselves to raising questions likely to encourage reflection about the outlook for planning, administration and management, rather than entering into specific forecasts for the future.

I. THE WORLD IN CRISIS: ASPECTS OF THE GLOBAL SITUATION WHICH AFFECT THE PROBLEM OF EDUCATION

It is important at a time when rapid economic, socio-political and cultural changes are occurring throughout the world to view education as a field of hypothesis about the future, both in order to review the suitability of the historical assumptions made and to assess the educational measures taken for the purpose of effectively influencing the future of mankind. It is interesting from both these points of view to examine closely the role played by educational planning in the construction of our hypothesis.

The many varied components of the changes which are producing crisis situations and problems in all regions of the world stem from different causes and are reflected with varying degrees of intensity. These all directly affect education systems, their determining factors and their protagonists, so that we are often led to call in question not only educational planning but also the very concept of education itself.

The great variety of problem situations in the countries of all regions, and the varying intensity with which they are perceived by different sectors within each country, highlight at least three major areas of impact in which education can take its place as a hypothesis about the future. The problem can be stated as threefold: (a) economic and financial, (b) socio-political, and (c) cultural and educational.

1. Economic and financial problems

1.1 Throughout the world, economic development is becoming increasingly polarized between countries with economic growth - whether slow or rapid - for example in South-East Asia, or some developed countries, and countries that have actually experienced a reversal of their growth rates and economic stagnation, where the relative progress attained in two decades has virtually disappeared in recent years. The widening gap between developed countries and poor nations is becoming even more pronounced. It is true to say that the only prospect for some three quarters of the population of the planet is continued marginalization, with no hope of change for the present generation.

1.2 International economic co-operation has been seriously called into question. Far from receiving foreign capital, the countries of the Third World have been obliged, particularly in the last ten years, to make net transfers of resources to the rich countries in order to service their debts, which have reached unprecedented levels. International financial forces in the debtor countries have chosen to impose structural adjustment measures whose consequences - in addition to capital flight and the brain drain - mainly affect the most disadvantaged countries and sectors, and have provoked spiralling inflation and the privatization of public goods and services.

1.3 The world economic system has not been restructured to respond to the new international realities of mega-corporations and multinationals, many of which enjoy greater economic and politcal power than entire governments.

1.4 Even within nations the gap between rich and poor is widening, dangerously increasing poverty to dire levels; hunger and malnutrition have become endemic, starkly contrasted with the situation of affluent minorities.

Rising unemployment and underemployment have led to the emergence of black 'subsistence' economies in countries unable to provide adequate employment in the formal sector.

1.5 Countries' social debt has increased, and is reflected in growing malnutrition, whole communities starving to death, increased mortality among children and mothers, and rising school drop-out and repetition rates.

1.6 The impressive development of technology, including that of informatics which most directly affects education, often owes more to the profit motive than to other values or the need to meet real requirements.

2. Socio-political problems

Closely linked to the world economic crisis are a great many typical signs of serious social and political deterioration throughout the world community, with equally serious consequences for the different countries.

2.1 Two crucial elements of the socio-political context of world power - the supremacy of technology, and capital resources - increasingly escape from the control of States. The renunciation of dogmatism in economic ideology and in inter-State relations is indicative of adaptation to this reality.

2.2 At the same time, we now see governmental decision-making - even in financially strong countries - becoming increasingly ineffective in the face of world economic factors and fluctuating forces which are difficult to control, since they are often in the hands of the private sector. The internationalization of markets provides conclusive proof of this. Similarly, the revolution in productive structures greatly influences countries' global plans, especially since the introduction of new technologies, rapid changes in the supply of labour and obsolescent mechanisms for welfare provision create new relations between labour, economics, education and culture. Another notable feature is the emergence of civil society, which increasingly takes action in advance of the State.

2.3 In addition, in the developing countries there are increasing movements for more democratic approaches to government and development, with popular demands for decentralization based on greater participation and self-management. The extent of unrest in Third World countries has fuelled interest in rural movements, class conflicts, ethnic demands and revolutionary insurrection. Recent social movements calling for political, ethnic and economic changes in the Eastern bloc countries complete the picture of the mobilization of civil society. The recrudescence of racial conflicts in a great many regions also contributes to the changing world scene.

2.4 There is likewise growing concern - transcending geopolitical frontiers and government spheres of interest - for interrelated global problems such as acid rain, the depletion of the ozone layer, pollution of seas and rivers, drug manufacture and traffic, the appearance of new infectious diseases, the world population explosion and the ecological crisis, for which the developed countries are mainly responsible but which most acutely affect the Third World. All around us the potentially irreversible deterioration of the environment is also destroying the resources that will be needed by future generations.

To deal with this situation people have had to survive somehow, with makeshift arrangements to adapt to immediate requirements. Take for example the living conditions of the inhabitants of large metropolises who have suffered and are still suffering from the consequences of uncontrolled growth.

The material damage done to the balance of nature affects individuals both physically and mentally. In addition, the natural disasters that befall populations year after year, such as earthquakes, storms, tidal waves, cyclones, floods, typhoons, landslides, cold waves and heat waves, are

phenomena that severely test the resistance of the destitute populations to extremes of suffering and despair. At times these phenomena are provoked by the irresponsible behaviour of countries that indiscriminately experiment with the laws of geophysics and biology.

2.5 In recent years, particularly within the developed countries, there has also been a marked population drift from the country to the town, bringing with it new social, cultural and economic problems for rural and urban areas alike. Similarly, constant migration to more developed countries by people in search of work and better living conditions has created new and frequently conflictual situations in the developed countries.

2.6 At the present time, détente makes it necessary to consider not only the growth of the military industry and the arms market but also the arms race - including nuclear arms - and the consequent weakening of certain international organizations and of co-operation among nations. One dramatic aspect of this rivalry has been the taking of sides in the internal conflicts of Third World countries through the provision of large-scale military and financial aid that has destabilized the developing countries and revived or obstructed domestic political processes, jeopardizing their prospects of economic development and often encouraging arms spending. These conflicts in Third World countries have not only caused generations of men and women to grow up in an atmosphere of war, but have fomented hatred and taken their toll of dead and disabled, all of which exacerbates already serious social and economic problems.

2.7 However, hopes are emerging that the Third World may cease to be the battle-ground for world hegemony and that emphasis will be laid on development in the context of new North-South economic relations. The gradual de-escalation of the East-West ideological conflict encourages more pragmatic approaches, as evidenced by the treaties on the elimination of intermediate and short-range missiles, the withdrawal of troops from Europe and the destruction of certain weapons.

3. Cultural and educational issues

The momentum generated by the intricate relations between economic and socio-political phenomena in world society has its historical counterpart in education. In its own specific field of action education is now endeavouring to respond to the challenges posed by this dynamic trend.

3.1 Humankind is at present faced with rapid changes bringing in their wake unequal levels of scientific and technological development, increasingly marked economic disparities between countries and certain imposed or self-imposed productive 'functions', with the inevitable repercussions for the quality, coverage and development of education systems. While the users of education systems in the developed countries have access to new educational technologies and new content, more in keeping with scientific progress, underdeveloped areas often still lack basic education facilities. The same can be said of the training and further training of educators.

3.2 The speed with which changes have occurred in recent decades in all countries poses for education systems a series of problems which for the most part have hardly time to emerge before being overtaken by events. As a result, educational reforms, both of policy and in respect of content, are proposed and become obsolete before they are even put into operation.

3.3 The technological progress of the mass media, together with the revolution of satellite communications - electronic mail, the written press, television, radio, videos or television screens linked up to information

centres - reflects the role of technological equipment in modernizing everyday life and expanding culture and recreation. It cannot be denied that the influence of these media is a double-edged weapon, which makes for such spectacular changes in the personal, family and professional lives of all of us that specialists and politcal analysts are paying increasing attention to their effect on the population.

In addition, the expansion of the media, far from representing a back-up to nations' educational efforts (with rare exceptions), constitutes a 'parallel education system' which, while encouraging consumerism in the interests of producers, erodes the values that have upheld the identity of peoples, and has become a very powerful mechanism for the ideological manipulation of large sectors of the population.

Throughout the world this 'new culture' becomes rooted not only through scientific and technological dependence but also through the popularization of technology and the increasing amount of time that children, young people and adults devote every day to the media. This is important both because of the explicit or implicit educational content of the media and because of the association of the media with financial and political interests expressed in ideological messages or advertising.

3.4 This phenomenon should be added to the growing internationalization of education which - though of long standing in the countries known as 'peripheral' because of their situation of dependence - is beginning to invade other countries as well, since 'national' responses no longer satisfy educational demand. The mass production of education, transnational interference in the selection and dissemination of educational content, and the formation of standardizing blocs that transcend national frontiers all create new educational issues and problems. Technology transfer, and the requirements of new productive activities also make education a new product of the international market, subject to the control not of States but of the business sector.

This is the case, for instance, with the press, textbooks, encyclopedias, bestsellers, technical books, magazines, video tapes and music; they all invade the world equally, imposing the same information on everyone. This phenomenon highlights a new problem involving the centres of power - international consortia - which sift the facts and determine what is to be divulged and what is to be read. It also extends to the control of information, particularly as regards news programmes; political and social developments affecting peoples both inside and outside the country are communicated to the general public only after certain groups have decided what may be divulged and how.

In short, the tendency in recent years has been to 'standardize' knowledge throughout the world; for this purpose, education at school seems to be an appropriate instrument.

3.5 Given the diversity of situations, the educational crisis has many different facets and levels within a single country. In many cases, it seems to be the reflection of other deep-seated crises in areas relating to identity - whether national, cultural, linguistic, personal, sexual, professional or social. This makes it difficult to define any clear-cut aims for educational projects.

II. EDUCATION IN CRISIS: EDUCATIONAL FACTORS IN PLANNING

Current economic, socio-political and cultural phenomena have necessarily had an impact on education throughout the world, with the result that education is in crisis in practically every country.

This crisis does not take the same form in all countries, very often in fact it manifests itself in different ways in one and the same country. The most common and at the same time the most obvious manifestation of the crisis, however, concerns the financing of education. The contrast, in this area, with the decades leading up to the 1980s gave rise to questions regarding the respective roles of the State and of users, particularly in higher education. Global economic factors also made it impossible to increase educational funding and in some cases the funds set aside for education dropped markedly.

Educational structures, which had been designed in the main to perform the task of social reproduction, were increasingly called into question, particularly those provided by the State, which no longer seemed to be meeting the requirements of society, in respect either of quantity of quality. This was because they had been badly affected by bureaucratization and had become obstinately resistant to change.

Mention should also be made of three other factors liable to make for crisis in education systems which, with differences of emphasis and presentation, seem to be spreading throughout the world: difficulties encountered in providing basic education for all and eradicating illiteracy; the linkage of education with the development of human resources; and local planning and management of education.

1. The process of educational expansion which began in the 1960s in the Third World was designed to provide educational services for as many people as possible by building and opening more schools. Its main object was to provide basic education for the whole population, a goal which most industrialized countries had already attained.

This rush to increase the number of schools, which continued until the early 1980s, had the effect of doubling or tripling enrolments; in many cases teachers and administrators had to be conjured out of thin air in order to cope with the sudden influx of new pupils.

Education was seen at that time as holding out the prospect of shared development, particularly among the countries of the Third World. A basic assumption seemed to underlie this commitment to education: without education there is no development. This meant that to promote education was to promote development. Development, in its turn, was identified with economic growth. It was felt that education should, therefore, be geared to training for economic development.

2. With this explicit or implicit intention, financial resources were directed towards increasing enrolments and combating illiteracy, which was considered to be the main reason for poverty.

In almost all regions, but particularly in Latin America, education led to greater social mobility of the middle classes and increased the demand for secondary and higher education. The financial resources of those countries were therefore concentrated on these lines. Many countries were already providing basic education for all, but the others never managed to achieve universal coverage. Dropping out continued to be a problem, even in the first years of basic education courses, as did repetition. Illiteracy, which now had

different implications, was another problem that had not been solved, and it was re-emerging in some industrialized countries where compulsory schooling for all should have made it impossible.

3. Despite the many efforts to eradicate illiteracy by ensuring that all children receive basic education and by taking a variety of measures to teach adult illiterates to read, illiteracy will not go away, whether it is qualified as absolute or as functional illiteracy. Efforts to deal with this problem are not helped by the difficulty of identifying illiterates, the inaccuracy of statistics and the uncertain definition of the word 'literate'. Moreover, those who had been encouraged to expect that the ability to read and write or the acquisition of a certificate of primary education would improve their economic situation, found their hopes dashed in practice.

One thing that is certain is that in almost every country - many industrialized countries included - the number of illiterates outstrips the capacity of the measures taken on their behalf. Another thing that is becoming increasingly apparent is that basically, illiteracy is associated with various types of injustice and that literacy campaigns on their own are not the right way of tackling the problem. This raises the question of whether education alone should bear the responsibility for combating injustice and whether it can succeed in this task unaided.

4. Inequalities in access to educational services - when combined from the start with such factors as wide variations in the provision of health services, nutrition and early childhood development and differences in mother tongues, which are associated with different positions in society - have the effect of widening still further the gap between rich and poor countries and between different groups within each country. In such circumstances demand for basic education is not being satisfactorily met. The cutback in resources for social services has made the chasm between rich and poor within the same country even more marked. The subsidiary employment of children to supplement family income is widening the gap, as every working child will be an illiterate adult and a candidate for dire poverty.

5. We must also bear in mind the general lack of relevance of the educational content of basic education to everyday life, whether in rural or urban areas. The failure of the content of basic education to take account of scientific and technological progress, the pervasive influence of the media, and access to new sources of information, mean that the school is out of step with everyday life, work and speech.

6. In many countries the need to provide basic education for all resulted in the nationwide application of the same curricula and study programmes and sometimes in the publication of similar books and teaching aids, without taking into account internal diversity within each country, which frequently embraces a wide variety of languages and cultures.

As a result of these general problems in the provision of basic education and literacy, hopes that the universalization of education would result in a more even sharing of the benefits of development were shattered, undermining the social value of education, and this in itself generated a crisis situation.

7. There were various periods when economic development was hindered by the lack of qualified manpower which could have maintained or generated it. It was therefore felt to be the job of education to train human resources for economic development. Education systems made an effort to respond to this need by extending their coverage and range. A wider variety of courses was offered in higher education, more postgraduate courses were offered and more technical courses were organized at advanced levels.

8. The revolution in productive structures had a considerable influence on the education system as a whole in that types of employment changed rapidly, the workforce became increasingly mobile, and the training-employment-retirement sequence was broken. Education tried to promote the new technologies by providing a greater number and wider variety of courses.

9. States were unable to meet the needs of the business sector and parallel education courses emerged which linked the concept of lifelong education with a response to specific needs.

10. In addition, within the education system there are always complaints that pupils promoted to higher classes are insufficiently prepared, and these complaints are taken up by businesses in turning down many higher education graduates. This situation, with the increasingly rapid changes in production processes and the automation and modernization of industry, has led to massive unemployment among those who have received their training from the education system.

These are some of the factors which have destroyed the hopes entertained by many nations of generating and promoting development by making major financial investments in secondary and higher education. This is one of the reasons why the role and priorities of the education system are being called in question, since many high-school graduates - especially those that are unemployed - have increased rather than eased the education and employment crisis.

It should be noted that the common denominator of these two phenomena, which affect the internal structure of the education system, is the unidimensional approach to education which consists of linking it primarily, if not exclusively, with economic aspects. While it is true that education should not be asked to make greater social changes than those that it is actually capable of effecting, it is also true that it cannot be asked to do less in respect of the education of individuals and of society. People are more important than the economic dimension, however large it may loom in reality.

11. The rapid growth of education services has brought in its train a break in relations between pupil and teacher, between the teacher and the education centre and between the education centre and the community. In theory, the establishment of educational communities has been largely promoted and much has been written on the subject. However, at the levels of both basic and higher education, the mass provision of education has led to a deterioration in these relations and, in a sense, dehumanized the education process.

12. The preponderance of macro-education over micro-education may also, in many cases, be attributed to demographic problems and to the decline in teachers' salaries, which forces teachers to take up 'moonlighting' or to do double teaching shifts. A vicious circle is thus formed, in which better remuneration is not provided for a poor education service, and education is not improved because - at least as a contributory reason - teachers are financially unable to devote themselves effectively to it.

13. The fact that services are not connected with each other, and the lack of linkage between local needs, educational content, individual and community expectations and teaching processes, have aggravated the crisis in education, even in remote areas where education has not yet been perceived as a necessary and useful process in life.

14. With regard to educational administration, there is practically no connection between educational processes and administrators, and between the administrators and those who are directly involved in education in schools. As a result, education is generally assessed only in terms of quantitative parameters and goals which take little account of the real problems encountered in the world of education.

15. As it has not been possible to expand the training of educational administrators, administration is seen as work for specialists, which means that most people responsible for the management and the running of schools and education programmes have no idea of the machinery of administration and, in particular, of planning and evaluation. While this problem can be solved only by training more staff in the knowledge and skills of educational administration and management, simple models that are easily disseminated and applied might be used for identifying the immediate needs of the population groups served by the institutions and programmes concerned.

The planning models proposed by specialists and theorists usually contain complex procedures that can be handled properly only by experts. This is one of the reasons why educational activities do not even provide for a simple diagnosis of whether or not education services meet user requirements in order to take remedial action and to draw up local plans of action.

16. In many countries all these factors call into question the validity of current educational management and administration, which are regarded as obstacles to educational reform. Bureaucratic procedures, the fact that they are confined to a merely supervisory role and, in many cases, the sophistication of operational instruments, have become real barriers to progress in education.

17. Similarly, specialization in the training of human resources in the field of education, and the very way in which education systems function, have placed in the hands of administrators, economists or other professionals the entire decision-making machinery. This applies even to the local level, where no provision exists for waiving general regulations which are very frequently drafted by people with no practical educational experience.

An analysis of these contributory factors to the educational crisis will provide a more specific approach to a review of educational planning, administration and management.

III. EDUCATIONAL PLANNING: PAST DEVELOPMENTS AND PRESENT CRISIS

1. Past developments

1.1 Background

While it is true that in the last four decades science and technology have developed at virtually the same pace in all the industrialized countries, its impact has been felt in almost all other countries, provoking various types of change at various levels of social, political, cultural and economic structures. This meant that education needed to keep pace with technological innovations that could form the basis for sure and rapid economic and social development.

The most significant of the measure in which educational authorities so sensibly emulated the productive sectors was the new emphasis on administration as an organic part of the various educational systems, levels and services. Though at first low-key and sporadic, little by little educational planning, administration and management have become an accepted element in all education systems.

The element of the administrative cycle which was given most attention - within education - was educational planning, albeit not necessarily in association with the other systemic administrative processes (research, programming, implementation, control mechanisms, supervision, evaluation, monitoring, co-ordination). In fact, by and large, planning is distinct from administration at least in theory, though it is present in the other elements of administration.

With the end of the Second World War the need was felt - by those who had participated in the conflict - to strengthen the means of production and build themselves up again as nations. The growing industrialization of certain geopolitical sectors called for skilled, specialized workers with technical training who would at the same time find fulfilment through work. Even those who had not been directly affected by the Second World War saw themselves as beneficiaries of successive postwar scientific and technological changes, without at first experiencing the same need for productive growth.

1.2 Perceptions of educational planning for development

The creation of the United Nations and publicity surrounding the theory of human rights and practical insistence on their observance led to increased demand for education in all social sectors. The underdeveloped countries felt the need to focus their attention on what the developed countries had done and were doing, and adopt it as a model since those countries had already integrated or experienced the problem of underdevelopment.

The problem of underdevelopment was initially seen as one of poverty, backwardness and a lack of or inadequate economic growth, measured by the parameters used in modern industrialized societies: gross domestic product (GDP) and its counterpart, *per capita* income. At the same time countries with centralized planning established their own parameters to measure development in terms of the social distribution of goods.

This tendency to measure development in terms of economic growth on the industrial pattern - capital, availability of goods and services, use of mechanical technology and of technical skills and talents - meant that education had to follow in that direction both in the industrialized countries and in those wishing to develop. All of this highlighted the vital need for management planning, which from 1960 onwards took the form of Regional (later National and in recent decades Sectoral) Educational Development Programmes.

The inalienable 'right to education' embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Charters of the United Nations and the Organization of American States was cited to emphasize the vital need for overall planning of the entire education system - already systematically applied in the USSR and in less developed form in various other countries, especially in Latin America, because, it was claimed, stated principles were not being put into practice. These rights included free, compulsory and universal primary education and equal educational opportunities for all.

The following were thought to be some of the factors responsible for this state of affairs:

the acute problem of illiteracy;

the growing number of children not attending school;

the shortage of schools;

the thousands of unqualified and therefore unsuitable teachers;

schools unsuited to the specific needs of individual countries;

population increase;

poor administration of educational services;

quantitative and qualitative limitations imposed by plans that were not comprehensive in their coverage;

inadequate use of international technical assistance and of that available from national and para-State agencies and private sources.

From then onwards educational planning became standard practice thanks to the decisive and effective support of international bodies and their experts. Aims, principles, objectives, methods, means and procedures were laid down that made planning accepted as a necessary activity in the development of all education systems. Educational planning was thus identified with knowledge and the application of the 'know-how' vital for anticipating what sort of education should be offered, satisfying demand, assessing its financial implications, stimulating human resources and making the best possible use of technical staff and material resources with a view to attaining the educational goals proposed within established time-frames.

The influence of international organizations - particularly Unesco, its International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and the International Bureau of Education (IBE) - supplied a basis for more technical educational planning, that is to say, educational planning based on scientific methods that, using reliable information and research findings, would define the real situation in a given country before setting goals and targets, determining principles, defining objectives, preparing content, selecting methods, enlisting and developing human, technical, institutional, economic and material resources, and organizing cost-benefit/input-output measurements and evaluations, all with a view to more effective, rational and harmonious implementation of national and sectoral plans.

The idea was to resolve the problems that were preventing education from being not only a factor of social integration but also a means of providing services to a community in need of stronger motivation and greater fulfilment and a force for change, progress, social advancement and the attainment of the ideals of equality and justice for all.

On this basis, economic studies and research were carried out and the findings showed that education was an investment rather than an outlay of funds. It was sensible for both the State and individuals to invest in instruction and training - in short, in education - for greater economic advantage. Education thus became one of the economic sciences, and the theory of human capital provided the foundations for a system known as 'manpower planning' in education.

In this way, education - identified first and foremost with school enrolment - received greater credit for its determining role in the process of economic development, being seen to encourage modernization not only in industry and agriculture but in other areas. It was argued that such progress could not be expected of the illiterate, the undereducated, the unskilled and the untrained.

This concept of education as an investment gave rise to awareness of the need for education to be planned, and various methods were adopted. In practice this meant the virtually mechanical application of forecasting techniques and formulae based on quantitative data in an attempt to predict probable scenarios for growth and for enrolment in the formal education system, which would produce criteria for decision-making. The best known approaches to educational planning may be briefly defined as follows:

The social demand approach

Population growth and the increasingly widely held view that the education provided by the formal system was the best way of achieving greater participation in the benefits of a society geared to modernization exerted srong pressure on the formal education system. This, added to the nature of the system itself, resulted in constant calls for coverage of the growing demand for high-school enrolment ratios at the various educational levels, from primary or elementary education to secondary education - which nowadays together constitute so-called basic education - right up to higher education.

The social demand approach, in its turn, is a basis for the study of demand for formal education, using cohorts to estimate the number of students who will register at the various compulsory levels of a single system, in accordance with population estimates by age-group. It is also necessary to provide estimates for the various age-groups at the non-compulsory levels. These may or may not subsequently be in a position to gain access to the different branches and various channels of the system.

These estimates must be based on trends over previous years and foreseeable changes, determined by social attitudes and generated by economic change. The findings of the analyses must be interpreted as the specific needs to be met by a country in terms of training specialized personnel, training teachers and technical and administrative staff, and providing facilities, support services, equipment, textbooks, materials, etc.

Work-force approach

This educational planning approach emerged as a technical expedient rationalizing the link between economic development and the efficiency of the education system, since no progress is possible without adequate preparation of the agents of production.

The 'human capital' theory establishes the premise that its people are a country's prime resource but that they need to be educated and trained.

Education and economics can, therefore, in no way be allowed to operate separately and independently. They must work together towards development.

Existing links between education, occupation and national income in each country thus need to be studied so as to ensure that national development plans are viable and feasible and, consequently, to achieve an appropriate balance in the provision of resources, which are always limited and increasingly scarce.

Seen from this point of view, the 'work force' prognosis tries to establish a systematic linkage between education plans and the foreseeable needs of the economic sector. However, since economic and social development cannot be achieved overnight, the educational prognosis must parallel economic requirements; it is therefore advisable to establish short-term (one to three year), medium-term (three to five year) and long-term (10, 15 or 20 year) education plans.

Approach based on 'cost-benefit' analysis

Whereas the 'work-force' approach is geared to defining educational needs from the angle of required skills and abilities, 'cost-benefit' analysis, also known as the 'rates of return' approach, is based on the promotion of those educational levels with the highest cost-benefit ratio. It involves linking a person's expected income during his or her working life to each of the stages in the education system. The idea is to check whether graduates of the higher educational levels earn more.

In practical terms, this approach analyses the cost-benefit ratio from the point of view of both the individual and society. It is, however, excessively pragmatic and materialistic and suffers from serious deficiencies or limitations in that it overestimates quantitative economic benefits and virtually divests the educational process of other more important dimensions, such as self-fulfilment and the acquisition of values. This approach is of limited use, particularly if it is the only criterion applied in the planning of a country's education system, and particularly if the country is not 'industrialized'.

Approach adjusted to econometric models

Another attempt to use analytical tools which rightly belong to the field of economics was inspired by the use of econometric models. Generally speaking, these models are expected to make an analytical prediction of the type of educational structure needed to attain the proposed goals of economic growth, and to anticipate student flow within the education system itself.

These approaches led up to the climax of the development of education systems in which planning was a key factor.

2. Current planning crisis

Educational planning as a concept must seek, first and foremost, answers to questions relating to theory and methodology.

2.1 Crisis at the conceptual level

Underlying current approaches to educational planning is an unconvincing conception of history, which assumes the steady progress of society, education and economic growth, and is incapable of explaining recessions and the re-emergence of phenomena that seemed to have been eliminated. In fact, rather than defending a particular conception of history, planners have taken it for

granted that history would develop linearly and have concentrated on short-term forecasts without bothering about the shape of things to come.

Nor has the conception of development implicit in educational planning been accurate. Development has almost always been identified with economic growth and efforts have therefore been directed towards attaining or consolidating it. As a result, controversies involving economic theory have time and again influenced the assumptions of educational planning (marginality theory and dependence theory, for instance).

At the same time, the concept of education has been widely debated in recent decades and attempts have been made to clarify its relationship to economic and cultural development, social processes, individual well-being and democratization (among others). The debate has shown up the chronic dislocation between educational planning and the philosophy of education, and the absence of explicit values or norms to guide planners in their decisions.

Now its conceptions of history, development and education have all been undermined, educational planning faces an epistemological crisis. Its connection with and correspondence to reality as well as its adaptation to that reality are being called into question. The highly quantitative paradigm that has been used to evaluate reality does not cover the complex range of current requirements. An explanation centred on the force of quantitative data cannot take proper account of all the phenomena (political, ethnic, cultural, environmental, social and economic) that impinge on education.

2.2 Crisis at the methodological level

Dissatisfaction with the traditional approaches to planning has also provoked a methodological crisis consisting of the realization that the various approaches can be applied in response to specific needs and are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

The social demand method is based on manipulation (almost always stimulation) of the demand for education. It assumes that any type of education is beneficial and is wont to ignore work-force requirements. Its advocates tend to overestimate popular demand and underestimate costs. The application of this method spreads resources among a large number of students with a resulting decline in the quality and efficiency of education.

According to the work-force method the main purpose of education is to train the work-force required by the economy (in conjunction with economic planning aimed at increasing GNP). However, there are no valid indicators regarding qualifications for the different sectors of the work-force, and the needs of semi-skilled or unskilled workers are ignored. Appropriate levels of education are only specified in respect of the highly qualified workers required by the modern sector of the economy.

The cost-benefit approach aims at maximum returns with minimum outlay. This is the approach most widely used at present, with the result that criticism of it is also the most widely aired (points are included in the general remarks set out below).

The econometric approach is based on quantified estimates of the educational services needed to attain economic growth targets established outside the education system. This approach is criticized for attempting to link the qualifications of graduates to success in meeting the demands of development or economic growth.

Among the most frequently cited symptoms of the methodological crisis in educational planning are:

The patent difficulty of using it to promote the democratization of society.

The slowness with which a centralized planning process operating on a vertical axis is being converted into the participatory planning process required by current societies.

Its lack of a global and integrating vision of current social realities: its estimates extend only to the short and medium term, they are fragmentary in their coverage (attempting to separate each part of the education system) and they are not integrated into a wider framework. Plans for education thus become autonomous instead of reflecting the needs of society and the economy in general.

Socio-political upheavals and the severe financial limitations imposed on education oblige educational planning to adjust to complex situations and forego some of the discipline usually associated with planning activities. It often becomes a mere budgeting exercise designed to prevent a cutback in financial resources from curtailing activities already under way or to increase funding in order to be able to do 'more of the same'.

Educational planning is not conspicuous for its dynamism, since it is designed to establish a static education system, which means that it is out of step with the rapid changes that actually occur.

In most countries the conditions in which educational policies and plans have to be implemented and their practical feasibility are systematically ignored when such policies and plans are being prepared. Also, decisions are sometimes taken by a small group supposedly in possession of all the information needed to make the right decisions. Although much progress has been made with decentralization, it seems more concerned with geographical and administrative distribution than with community participation in decision-making.

Quantitative data alone are used, and they do not guarantee the smooth execution of the plan and the proper functioning of the education system as a whole.

In short, educational planning has gradually become more of a technique than a methodology, preoccupied with the rationalization of resources, the linear projection of educational targets and trends and, in many cases, the legitimization of existing economic and educational policies. No consensus-based plans have been made for a global long-term future that would reflect the values of society which, in turn, give meaning to each of the actions undertaken to equip ourselves for it.

2.3 Crisis in practice

The crisis in planning can be seen with its different implications and in its different forms in the following areas:

Funding

It is a fact of life that educational planning is subordinated to economic factors which have determined the action, priorities and scope of education in virtually all countries. This, among other things, is the reason for the straitjacket currently imposed on planning, since people in all countries are living in times of financial austerity which are not just a passing phase, as some have claimed.

Although the reduction in funds available for education is being felt worldwide, it varies dramatically from the developed countries to the less developed countries and among the underdeveloped countries themselves, some of them - including whole regions in Africa - showing a quite alarming deterioration.

Unsuccessful attempts to stimulate a feeling of economic and technical responsibility for the developing countries in the developed countries have encouraged and aggravated this state of affairs.

The reduction in resources has repercussions (of varying intensity) on the quality and coverage of education.

The increasing scarcity of resources is compounded by deficiencies in their management. As a result, innovative initiatives have ground to a halt and the tendency is to churn out unimaginative, monotonous courses providing more of the same, though still not enough to go round, while quality is progressively deteriorating.

The limited scope of education management does not allow for the possibility of endogenous strategies emerging at the micro-structural level.

What is more, the traditional type of administration rides roughshod over all attempts to simplify processes and carry out monitoring and evaluation exercises that would allow the necessary changes to be introduced. For some time now school administration has been so bogged down by bureaucracy and rigidity, particularly as regards management and executive functions, that administrative posts are often rotated among the same people, whose ideological conformity discourages constructive criticism or self-criticism.

In many instances unionization can provide an opportunity for change in situations of administrative stagnation, but this is not always possible, especially when unions operate under pressure from entrenched interests and already existing agreements or a collective approach that has no connection with the function of education.

Lack of political continuity

While it is true that history can be viewed in terms of progress since the Industrial Revolution, the succession of decision-makers that have held power have given priority to technical aspects and underestimated the importance of the historical processes which form the framework.

Planning is a concretion of education policies and is therefore neither ideologically or axiologically neutral, since it assumes the values that inform such policies.

The possibilities for participative democracy in decision-making which seem to abound in certain areas are in short supply in planning, and more particularly in educational administration; what predominates there are centralized models or models involving little real participation.

A degree of continuity in education is to be found in the more democratic countries, while in countries with little or no democratic participation educational processes are dislocated by every change of government, if they do not grind to a halt. This paralysis is caused as much by constant reference to largely undemocratic models as by practices associated with jealously guarded preserves and increasing resistance to criticism and social pressure.

The contribution of social research, particularly in the field of education, has been undervalued as a factor in decision-making, while the importance of economic inputs, especially cost-benefit inputs, has been exaggerated.

Gap between progress in technology, science, culture and communication and the training of human resources: innovation vs. obsolescence

One of the other doubtful characteristics of educational planning that has helped spread the crisis is the unwillingness to accept change in education. This provokes conflicts between those who wish to modernize educational practices and models and those who wish to perpetuate them. Long-standing resistance to change puts paid to any innovative ideas from planners from outside the operational branch of the system.

The gap between advances in technology, science, culture and communication and human resources training is a worldwide problem most keenly felt in the developing countries.

Development that directly benefits big business - which finances it - is based on a monopoly of knowledge and aims to optimize resources with a view to profit rather than to improve co-operation among peoples. The logical conclusion of this approach is that the haves will have more and the have-nots will have even less.

The training of human resources with a view to the development of science, technology, culture and communication creates an enormous gap between the developed and the developing countries. While the former teach their personnel to generate new knowledge and progress, the undeveloped countries receive training that is geared only to the acquisition of skills and not to the acquisition of knowledge. Furthermore, when people from underdeveloped countries who have been trained in developed countries return home they find that the infrastructure needed for them to put their knowledge to use is lacking. As a result, staff in developing countries are both underqualified and overqualified. This situation highlights the structural faults in educational planning.

Because of the lack of relevant information, such as could be provided by systematic research, the education offered in many developing countries does not tackle the complexities of the effect of progress in science, technology, culture and communication on society. Consequently, education follows a passive course that takes no account of current social dynamics and makes no attempt to respond to it in terms, for example, of curricula, teacher training, teaching methods, teaching materials or management strategies.

The concept of development promoted by the expansion of big business or State decision-making has elicited an undifferentiated technocratic response from education, and this approach has permeated educational planning.

The chronic shortage of educational services

The very persistence of chronic failure to provide adequate educational services dramatically illustrates inequalities within the international community.

The new division of labour poses problems of educational provision for both the industrialized and non-industrialized countries, although in the industrialized societies they mainly affect the immigrant population and ethnic minorities.

In the undeveloped countries this chronic problem is linked with demographic factors. However, these factors are not its only cause; it is affected by contextual variables that are all too often disregarded by planners. Many of these variables can combine to produce phenomena that have not been taken into account by education planners, administrators and managers. These include the informal economy, which challenges the education/employment correlation, and the popularization of new information and communication technologies. This proliferation of low-cost technologies has broken the control of information exercised by schools, giving rise to a form of parallel education for large sectors of the population.

These new social behaviour patterns reflect a loss of governments' decision-making power which has been transferred, on the one hand, to big business and, on the other, to increasingly large groups within the community, leaving to the State functions that are increasingly administrative.

The marked tendency to accord priority to survival rates as indicators of efficiency and effectiveness has diverted attention from the causes of dropping out and the characteristics of those entering and leaving levels that do not offer any specific job qualifications. Literacy work and basic education are particularly hard-hit by these oversights, as, despite their ineffectiveness, the same courses continue to be offered and they are increasingly irrelevant to the sweeping changes affecting the various areas of society worldwide.

IV. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL CHALLENGES TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION, MANAGEMENT AND EVALUATION IN THE FUTURE

The situation described in this paper leads us to the conclusion that we are not going to have much success in working out the theory and practice of educational planning and taking the resulting administrative, management and evaluation measures, unless we actually accept the need to break with the institutional inertia surrounding the theory and practice of education itself.

The dynamics of the international context include changing perceptions and values regarding the organization of society, work, ways of living together in a community, reasons of State and government, and all that makes up the quality of life, even the significance of life itself. All this means that we must change what we are doing and how we do it, otherwise we shall be quite frankly overtaken by events, and our work as educators will become meaningless.

What then are some of the present and future challenges we face as educational planners?

1. The importance of knowledge and know-how

It is a somewhat bold idea that it is possible, proper and necessary for the few who are responsible for preparing curricula and study programmes to determine what should be taught to the people at large. This has always been an underlying assumption of education systems and institutions. It has been justified in various ways by the need to impart knowledge to shape the national identity, the need to foster scientific thinking as the basis for modernization, the need to adapt the 'educational product' to the needs and profiles of the labour market; the urgent need to narrow the gaps in the level of knowledge between the countries of the world; and other justifications familiar to us all. The question remains, however, as to who decides what we should know, and how the decision is taken. The urgent need to give a satisfactory answer to this question is made more acute by the fact that it is impossible to know all that is now known. There should be standard criteria for decision-making: who should decide, and what is to be regarded as suitable knowledge, at what level and with what aim in mind. The same applies to know-how. The progress which societies make is a function of the availability of applied knowledge or skills which help to resolve the problems of physical, social, environmental and spiritual survival. Thus it is legitimate to ask if the available technological progress generated by other countries is desirable simply because it exists, or if it is necessary and useful to acquire technological advances selectively on the basis of the specific characteristics of each country. It would appear, for example, that the impact and the consequences of the relationship between technological progress and work should be evaluated more from the human angle, and less from that of the logical requirements of technology. A reference point is always required which puts everything else in its proper place.

A discussion of educational content and acquired skill is the starting-point for any discussion of the relevance of educational planning, which has hitherto always been taken to refer to the formal education system as the context in which one acquired vital general education and the skills required to take one's place in society.

From this point of view, the question to be answered relates to educational needs and, more specifically, learning needs. On the basis of what kind of diagnosis can one rightly determine the content and skills to be offered to society? Advances in science and technology are increasingly the result of R&D projects of institutions and firms outside the education sector.

Does this mean, then, that educational planners should consider these knowledge-producing bodies as their main interlocuters? Should we perhaps conduct regional and local surveys in order to determine what people feel they need to know in order to achieve greater control of their 'micro-space'? What then should be our starting-point, and what criteria and procedures should we use to define what needs to be learned? Who, finally, is to decide what knowledge is important? Who is to create the conditions for access to such knowledge and its acquisition, and how? And, most important of all perhaps, to what purpose do we learn?

Discussion of the importance of knowledge and know-how forces us into complex situations of having to make decisions on values and meanings, which are, in essence, the raw material of education. Educational planning should therefore be called in question and reviewed from this point of view.

2. Culture and the development model

The recent history of the international community has shown us the limitations of the assumptions made about economic and social development during the last few decades. We know that economic growth alone guarantees neither the distribution of wealth nor social justice; that basic social needs cannot be defined in any standard way; that mass consumption of goods and services does not ensure the all-round well-being of individuals and society; that scientific and technological progress does not ensure that individuals acquire knowledge, nor create respect for, or satisfaction at the knowledge and ability of human beings; we know how difficult it is to strike a balance between individual rights and social rights; we know that international co-operation and assistance are not always generous or free from the desire to control and dominate; we know how easy it is to confuse the strength of reason with the strength of arms; we know that disinformation of the majority is the great ally of minorities in power; that the desire to amass unlimited wealth at the expense of nature is frequently confused with freedom and democracy; that ideologies distort reality and the natural feelings of kindness and solidarity of human beings; that the mass media can isolate us more by deliberately misrepresenting what people are, what they seek and what they do; and that, in many instances, the inevitable interdependence of nations disguises the dependence of the weak on the strong.

Lastly, we know that the concept of development, taken to mean individual and social growth, cannot be based on a univocal statement of human needs or of the ways in which they are to be met.

If the culture of nations and of human groups consists of their history, traditions, symbols, significations, ways of living together, shared projects for the future - in a word, a vision of the world which is intrinsically impregnated with values - then it is essential for each nation's development model to be defined and followed in keeping with the cultural values of its people.

It would be naïve not to acknowledge that the situation among nations is similar to that existing within each nation. The development models recommended are, in some instances, contradictory; and it is easy to see that the predominant model is the one advanced, either out of conviction or of necessity, by a minority that has the ability to put it into practice, reserving the possibility of blaming external factors if things go wrong. There is enough imagination to take action to prolong the life of development models that are doomed to failure, but not to call for widespread public reflection on viable national plans and their application with respect to individuals and society. The idea still lingers on that development is possible against the will of the people, whereas it is clear that progress

towards better living standards can be achieved only through sincerely convinced and motivated people participation.

At bottom this is a question of the need for social planning, what kind of social planning, and, within it, what kind of educational planning.

It is important to look at these considerations critically from the point of view of the international funding bodies which promote development aid and co-operation, bearing in mind successes and failures in this field during the last few decades.

3. Education as against educational models and systems

The complexity of social interactions in today's world confirms the point that in no circumstances is education synonymous with schooling. As we know, education neither begins nor ends in the classroom, nor is it restricted to the time spent at school each day. Many factors and situations contribute to what a person knows, assimilates and does. Our openness to the world around us and the specific way in which we interact with it, are the result of subjective conditions which are constantly changing, along with our constantly changing environment and the way in which we perceive and evaluate it.

It is extremely important to recall this fact, particularly in the light of conditions in today's world, if we wish in the near future to adapt the objectives and form of educational planning.

There is a great risk if we do not correct the inertia stemming from the concept and practice of educational planning as we know it. This risk would be confirmed if, in order to avoid the complexity of the problem, we evaded the concerns which must be addressed in the search for viable models of development applicable to different countries despite their diversity, and if we failed to take a stance on social planning. Similarly, the risk would be confirmed if, in view of the difficulty of working from a broad concept of education, we confined ourselves to seeking soluti ns only to the problems intrinsic in the formal education system, simply because of our familiarity with the components of that system. We know that many of the problems which occur within the formal education system originate elsewhere, and that consequently it would be pointless to seek internal efficiency without altering external factors which go beyond the sphere of influence of educational planning as it has been traditionally known and applied. If the people in a society are its most important element, education and educational planning, whatever the form they take, are crucial to development. This means that it is essential to reform, and reformulate, the social dimension of educational planning and therefore to plan social progress and change.

This being the case, educational planning cannot be restricted to the planning of the formal education system. Integrated educational planning should include the enormous range of experience accumulated in the practice of non-formal education and the tremendous importance of certain forms of social activity which are usually identified with informal education, such as for example the media.

It should be emphasized that in speaking of educational planning we are not prejudging the process or the actors involved, with the sole proviso that there must necessarily be a large element of social participation.

An approach of this type calls for a clear distinction between educational ends and means; it implies acknowledging that formal education systems as we know them, and also the many experiments in non-formal and informal education, are simply tentative methods of conducting specific

educational experiments. None of them has a monopoly of 'real education'; are valid only to the extent that they deliver satisfactorily what each of them can offer, and they should not be required to provide what they cannot deliver. The value of a method can be appreciated only given a clear view of the general objective of an activity.

Following this line of thought demands an important change in our perception of education and its social value. We are fully familiar with the exchange value attributed to the formal education system by modernizing industrial societies; we are also aware of the problems caused by increasing frustration at the lack of any linear causal correlation between the number of years of school attendance and the degree of participation in the goods and wealth generated by society. The growing phenomenon of unemployment among those who have attended school, and the fact that what is learned at school is made obsolete by technological progress, cast serious doubts on the social value traditionally ascribed to school attendance. This also applies to the rarely successful attempts to match the 'product' graduating from school with the jobs available on the labour market.

This alone should provide sufficient grounds for reviewing boldly and in depth the action which should be taken in the near future in relation to educational subject-matter and planning.

It seems that the time has come to take a new look at 20-year old assumptions on the need to introduce broad educational strategies making use of the potential of society as a whole to act as an educational entity. New forms must be sought to provide for the structured transmission of knowledge and know-how, thus making education as it were a joint social responsibility, not merely the task of a group of education professionals. The present serious shortcomings of education should also be evaluated with a view to overcoming them.

There is sufficient evidence to keep the formal education system where it belongs, and not to ask from it what it is unable to provide because of its intrinsic limitations or because of external factors which make it impossible for it to meet expectations. This point is also confirmed by the role which bodies other than the school play in industrialized societies with regard to the training of the human resources necessary for scientific and technological development.

Everything suggests that the future of educational planning depends to a great extent on the flexibility and imagination it will be possible to develop, in close relationship with the national development model.

4. Social planning as against educational planning

There is no need to discuss the ideological connotations of social planning as a concept, as the arguments in favour of the introduction of macro-planning, to a certain extent at least, are too well-known to need rehearsing here. Society, like a constantly moving living organism, poses a continuous challenge to human ingenuity. Social planning is a way of providing social rationality, consistency, order and direction and, in general, of giving a sense of purpose to life in society, to the benefit of all its members.

Today more than ever before, the community of nations as a whole and the situation prevailing in each nation individually, raise a series of problems which have never before even been imagined.

The increase in the world's population necessarily raises questions as to the survival of the species, in view of the natural resources required to ensure such survival. The volume and type of human needs that must be met necessarily determine the type and volume of goods and services and of the human labour required to produce them. There has also been an increase in the size, importance and requirements of social subgroups defined in terms of their ethnic origin, language, geographical location, religion or simply of the social problem that brings them together and to which they are seeking a solution, which suggests that they need to co-ordinate their efforts and to turn their potential to good account in the interest of society as a whole.

The complexity of society makes it more necessary than ever before to find common formulae that will ensure the basic social cohesion without which the vitality of existing social groups and of emergent social movements cannot be tapped. Lack of social cohesion can lead to the destruction of what has been achieved with much effort and still has its uses, and to failure to exploit new ideas on social organization which could be of benefit to all.

Education, seen in terms of joint individual and social responsibility for integrated growth aiming to improve the quality of life, is closely linked to the aims and purposes of society. Education is so intimately linked to the social phenomenon that they necessarily follow the same path. To put it more bluntly, society is what education is and vice versa; the level and form of social planning required will therefore be paralleled in educational planning.

It could therefore be helpful to formulate some questions the answers to which would make it possible to associate the hitherto independent processes of social planning and educational planning in a harmonious manner.

Perhaps the point of departure in this regard would be a question concerning the type of planning needed to achieve education for all, on the need for which there is general consensus. A crucial question would be whether planning devised by a chosen few is likely to attain the objective of education for all. One could also ask whether educational planning should continue to place greater emphasis on the 'macro' approach than on the 'micro' approach. These questions will provide an opportunity to think about the training that would have to be provided for planners, administrators and managers to cope with this new type of planning.

Education for all, which could be a blueprint for the social and individual life of peoples, will also require mechanisms to enable everyone to take part in its evaluation and monitoring. It would therefore be worth while to ask what provision should be made for evaluation and monitoring when planning education for all in order to enable evaluation to be more than mere criticism of past events and become an integral factor of future action and a participatory decision-making activity linked with monitoring and impact evaluation processes. As a concomitant factor of planning, evaluation would therefore serve as a compass, making it possible to keep to the chosen course and to change it whenever necessary.

One thing that is immediately apparent in this attempt to establish the internal consistency of the widely accepted objective of education for all is that although the word 'all' is univocal, the concept and practice of education is not. There is, therefore, a need to revise the options underlying, or in some cases emerging in, a field which has hitherto been dominated by basic education and literacy teaching. Is it possible that in education which is to be for ALL, implicit provision is being made for 'other' forms of education, such as health education, leisure education, education for the improvement of the environment, for the strengthening of self-esteem and more positive self-assessment, or education for peace?

These questions and other similar ones point to the need to find new forms of educational planning which will necessarily have an impact on social planning.

It would seem that society wishes to take control of its own destiny, disenchanted perhaps with bureaucracy and State technocrats. With regard to education, this would imply that society wishes to have a say in the definition of educational objectives and of the ways and means of attaining them. The educational planner would no longer perform the functions of high priest and training for the planning and administration of education would have to be made much more widely available.

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